The HIGH SCHOOL JOURNAL

Vol. XXXVIII October, 1954 No. 1

Successful High School Teaching: Easy or Impossible?

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WHAT is really the essential nature of successful high school teaching? Some consider a teacher successful if he manages to keep from getting fired. Others, in thinking of successful teaching, draw such an idealistic picture that success is virtually out of reach for everybody.

Parents, teachers, pupils, and school administrators look at teaching from rather different points of view; yet there are some elements regarding teaching which all of them think singificant. Even on these elements, success is simply a matter of degree and teachers may achieve substantial success in one category and be near the point of failure in another. The responsibility of teachers aspiring to genuine success is to work toward continuous improvement in all areas. The following views are not designed to give a recipe for successful teaching but rather to submit a personal view about the elements of good teaching.

THREE UNIVERSAL REQUIREMENTS

Common sense tells us that the first requirement of a successful teacher is that he have a good idea of what he is trying to do. Professional language might have this idea labeled the "identification of objectives" or the "clarification of purposes." Call it what you will, it is a clear picture of the desired outcomes of teaching. There is a vast difference between a ceremonial allegiance to a list of vague objectives and a down-to-earth way of working, based upon genuine personal purposes, identified and accepted by the high school teacher himself. Too often we are prone to conceive of our purposes mainly in terms of what textbooks cover.

The teacher who knows what he is trying to do with his pupils in an environment conducive to natural and unforced learning is already well on his way to success. In this setting the textbook

may have a marked "face-lifting" in the teaching-learning process, becoming a frequently used tool but not a symbol of the end purposes of learning.

A second requirement for succesful teachers is that they work within a network of school and community values and customs. A necessary attribute of successful teaching is that it be done within the major value system of a particular school and community. The teacher needs to adjust to the school culture in which he works and lives. He needs to prove his merit, first of all, in terms of standards which obtain in a given school and community setting. This idea should not imply an uncritical acceptance of all the rules, policies, and values within a school and the community it serves. It does imply, however, an understanding of the bases for these values and a mature level of patience and judgment.

The adjusted teacher is one who is interacting intelligently with his school and community environment. This suggests an initial focus of energy and emphasis on matters which are already of significance to the people in the school and community. Until the new teacher becomes accepted as being a genuine part of school and community life, he will be relatively uninfluential in making substantial improvement to it. A beginning teacher or a new teacher in a school is "in" it but not "of" the community. So long as he is a relative stranger, much of the adjustment needs to be a personal one on his part.

The third major characteristic emerges naturally from the second. The successful teacher is one who has learned how to operate effectively as an agent for change in the school and community. To be successful in this area, a teacher will not try to "sell" his particular ideas to other people. Instead he will contribute to group planning. He will be a good listener, profiting from the ideas of others, and will actively support plans of action which have been developed by the groups of which he is a part. In this manner he will be enlarging the worth of his own subsequent contributions in the direction of school and community improvement.

In the category of contributing to change, the element of timing is a strategic one. Often teachers make mistakes in classroom teaching and curriculum planning, because ideas for action are premature or because they are too long postponed. We err because we are not sensitive to conditions of readiness. Developing this third characteristic of success, then, requires a high degree of sensitivity to the ideas within a planning group, an acceptance of social

responsibility, and a high-level understanding of the characteristics of good group effort.

A good group member is not simply a verbal-level planner. He sets a personal example of follow-through into action and an appraisal of this action. He is a "volunteer" in activities for which he has appropriate abilities. He does not let his modesty interfere with his accepting positions of responsibility in group effort.

The above three points characterize the behavior of successful teachers. These points obviously refer to classroom teaching, to work with faculty groups, with parents, and with other community groups. The following statements outline six areas in which successful high school teachers need to be proficient.

SIX SLANTS ON HIGH SCHOOL TEACHING

1. The successful high school teacher must be one who can teach in the area of special education without needing to apologize for inadequacy in subject matter preparation. Special education here refers to two kinds of things. First of all, it is a type of education which prepares students in the direction of professional or vocational competency. The second meaning, which is more of an administrative one, refers to high school courses which are not required of all students but are elected by students in terms of their career planning.

The teacher's job in special education is to place relatively high emphasis upon subject matter and less emphasis upon the students themselves. In special education as contrasted with general education, relatively little provision for individual differences can afford to be made. It is in these special subject areas that teachers should have an opportunity to challenge students with superior or at least average ability and inner motivation. For teachers to achieve success in this area, the program of studies in special education must be comprehensive enough to include offerings in which all students can find successful and significant learning experiences.

2. The successful teacher must be effective also in the area of general education. This area actually takes primacy over special education, because the general education program is the backbone and primary justification for the American high school. By "general education," we refer to those courses which constitute common learning experiences for all high school students. In the traditional pattern of organization, these are the courses required, because they are obstensibly designed to develop basic skills, understandings, and attitudes appropriate for an effective and socially

responsible citizenry. In the core program, at least theoretically, the general education is based upon an identification and study of significant personal and social problems.

In the area of general education students must take priority over any preconceived subject area to be covered. This does not mean that subject matter will not be covered, but the students themselves are the standards by which general education courses must be measured. To put the case otherwise would be as inconsistent as to say a man should be stretched to fit his pants. In one instance, the pants need the alteration. In the other, if there are misfits, the curriculum itself is at fault.

Since there have been virtually no selective processes in operation prior to pupils entering general education courses, teachers need to demonstrate ability to provide for individual differences within the courses themselves. No student in general education should be doomed to failure. Let this not be taken to mean, however, the same thing as automatic or chronological promotion. Success should be a natural outcome of reasonable student effort, not a misguided and empty display of the milk of human kindness.

The teacher should recognize that any failure of a pupil is likely to reflect some degree of failure on his part as well. The teacher accepts as his primary responsibility the selection of appropriate educative experiences and the motivation of students so that learning is geared to needs and problems of enduring significance.

3. The third area of responsibility for success is that of guidance and counseling. All teachers have either positive or negative influence on the personal and academic problems of adolescents. Individual and group problems of a personal or an academic nature may hinder students from doing their best work. Problems of pupils can best be solved as professional school counselors and classroom teachers work together as partners in helping pupils to identify and work through their problems realistically.

Although the classroom teacher cannot be a psychologist or a mental hygienist, he can learn the rudiments of good human relationships and make application of this fundamental knowledge in his individual contact with pupils. In this same connection, he needs to understand his own personal limitations as a counselor. More than kindness and good intentions are needed in helping youngsters work through their problems. The successful teacher is a well-informed and capable ally of school counselors, a semi-skilled member of the counseling-guidance team.

4. Most high school teachers are called upon to sponsor or

take leadership in some extracurricular activity. Despite reactionary criticisms to the contrary, these activities are becoming more and more an integral part of the school program. They are recognized as having important educational values along with the more formal aspects of school life. High school teachers, therefore, have a direct responsibility for developing special interests which will qualify them to work with youngsters in some special area of interest. A desirable by-product of this development is the enrichment of "teacher personality." When we as teachers restrict our interests and learning to the academic field, we begin to fall into a deplorable kind of teacher stereotype. We must be interesting people before we can become successful teachers. Developing special interests may, therefore, have a double value—that of sparking special interests among pupils and that of expanding our own horizons of adult living.

5. Successful classroom teaching is not enough. Teachers can never achieve their greatest potential unless their relations with colleagues and with parents are wholesome and constructive. Thus the topic of interpersonal relationships looms important in the study of a teacher aspiring to full success.

Not many years ago the teacher could resort to official authority in the classroom and control students' behavior with relatively little natural leadership. The teacher's personal leadership traits were considered rather inconsequential. The teacher very often was regarded as a social isolate in the community, "in but not of" the community. Group dynamics was a relatively unknown and in a sense "unneeded" concept. School principals, who were frequently authoritarian, simply managed the school. The good teacher, the "cooperative" teacher, was merely one who obeyed willingly and with a smile.

As education leaders attempt more and more to pool the total intelligence of the faculty on school and community problems, and as teachers and parents attempt to work as teammates in the education of youth, this area of teacher responsibility increases in importance. Good human relationships provide the focal point for successful endeavors in developing a true community school.

6. The final area of responsibility of the successful teacher is in his life as a private citizen. Successful living in this area is not quite so simple as we frequently would like to make it. The successful teacher is not one who supinely retreats from the significant social and political issues of our time, nor is he one who becomes a slave of any special interest group in the community. He

is a politically educated and socially responsible citizen who determines on the basis of his own best judgment how he can render optimum service to his school, community, and to society at large while continuing his own personal development and enjoyment of his physical, aesthetic, and social world. The responsibilities of citizenship that he accepts are self-imposed, not thrust upon him by others as a convenient unloading point for civic responsibility. He is a person and a citizen first, a teacher second. He is not a slave in the sense of accepting uncritically the purposes of another.

SUCCESSFUL TEACHING

Perhaps a reasonable measure of success has been attained when we can honestly say of ourselves that we are proud of a consistent self-improvement which never gives way to complacency. If we spend our energies not lamenting what we cannot do because of what we do not have, but exploring ways of doing better with what we do have, then are we not measuring up to a sensible standard of success? Success from this point of view at least becomes an individual affair and one within the reach of all of us for whom teaching is, in the first place, a proper profession. This is a view of success which should spur us on to continuous improvement and not leave us with feelings of guilt and inadequacy over the failures that we could not avoid.

Estimated Enrollments

The nation's schools and colleges will enroll an estimated 38 million children and young people during 1954-55, according to S. M. Brownell, Commissioner of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. This estimate was based on a survey, conducted annually by the Office of Education, on prospective school enrollments.

"The highest peaks in school and college enrollment are yet to come. By 1959-60 the enrollment in elementary and secondary schools and in schools and in colleges and universities will rise to approximately 46 million. High schools and then the colleges will feel the enrollment increase bulge now taxing our elementary schools." High schools will have about 7,422,000 students this year, three per cent more than last year.

Eighth Grade Shakespeare

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IS IT TOO EARLY to study Shakespeare in the eighth grade? Our thirty-one pupils in a self contained eighth grade class at Needham Broughton think not.

Our class has completed an interesting and colorful project evolving from a puppet show based on Shakespeare's famous comedy, "A Midsummer Night's Dream." The project grew out of a class discussion to plan an activity in a study of Shakespeare which would allow each member opportunity to participate. Fundamentals were not neglected in the thorough study of the play, but out of it came both pleasure and appreciation for this great writer.

Committees were set up to simplify the play, type and mimeograph scripts, construct the stage, sew draperies and curtains, make puppets, paint scenery, and design costumes. Students served on the committee of their choice and each committee elected a chairman. Enthusiastically each group began attacking its problems and bringing recommendations, questions, and reports so that all activities might be co-ordinated in a businesslike manner without waste of time.

After the group organized itself into committees, each worked independently. Those responsible for constructing the stage discussed their needs with the industrial arts teacher. He granted them permission to use the industrial arts equipment and even supervised this activity. While the stage was in the making, one member of the class reported that his father, the manager of a recently remodeled theatre, would donate a pair of discarded draperies. This material was brought to school and eagerly received. After discussing dimensions and plans with the stage group, the curtain committee met at the chairman's home where the mother was happy to assist. As a consequence, beautiful wine-colored draperies were brought to the classroom and fitted on the stage. Further, the curtain committee priced materials, obtained samples from department stores, and made curtains.

In the meantime, other groups were busy in their study of puppetry through library research. They consulted the group which had revised the play, classified the characters into separate groups, and each was on his merry way, meeting from time to time to report progress, dimensions of puppets, and many other new findings. The costume committee also used the library and the

home economics department to learn more about early Athenian garments. The scenery committee worked with the art teacher, thereby getting professional information for three scenes: a beautiful palace scene, a forest scene, and a scene in the workingmen's house. Our band director, familiar with the talent of these students since they participate in the junior band under his direction, helped them develop music which consisted of appropriate selections that they themselves were able to play between acts and for the fairy scenes.

After all the material things had been assembled, several pupils were given a script to study, and tryouts for the various speaking parts were held. Here the pupils worked on diction, expression, and public speaking. A committee was chosen to select the cast. After this was done, each person worked to perfect his part. A tape recorder was used, and the pupils were able to hear their own voices and detect their weaknesses. After many practices the final recording was made in a sound-proof room. Then, presto! With the recorder playing, the curtain opening, lights focusing properly on the scenery, and the manipulating of puppets at the proper time, "A Midsummer Night's Dream" was effectively produced on the stage before a group of 330 eighth graders.

It was fun, but it was work!

Before this play was presented, it had involved not only this class of thirty-one pupils but also the parents, who became as interested as the pupils; the administration, which was most generous in offering every assistance; and several members of the faculty who gave good advice and encouragement to various committees. The stage was completed with the aid of the industrial arts teacher. Three beautiful scenes were made by the students under the direction of the art teacher; music was supervised by the band director; and individual scripts were provided for each member of the class by the mimeograph and typing committee. Many parents had been generous in allowing meetings in their homes and in offering other assistance.

The thirty-one pupils did all the work in cooperation with interested supervisors, parents, and friends. They came into close contact with many people whom they had not previously known; they used facilities in school which, otherwise, they would not have been able to utilize until several years later. Furthermore, they attracted the attention of their parents to their work. They had learned to work together as a team, with each individual contributing according to his ability. And all of them had had a happy experience with Mr. Shakespeare!

A Proposed New High School Curriculum

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THE high school curriculum is being subjected to rigid scrutiny in these days of rapid change. One hears manifold critical charges that "the high school program is aimless," "it neglects fundamentals," or that "the secondary school offering is impractical for this modern day."

It is quite true that the curriculum of the high school has changed, broadened and mushroomed into a wide array of innumerable subject offerings. Some schools have so many listings that the student flounders helplessly in the complexity of it all.

TOO FEW REQUIRED—TOO MANY ELECTIVE

The required subjects have been gradually reduced until today in many states only five or six units are specified. There is even some mention of putting the whole high school program on an elective basis. This would most surely be a serious mistake. If there are to be objectives for the high school there must be some supporting subjects to be certain that these aims are accomplished. Already a few cities such as Washington, D. C., are moving back in the direction of more required and fewer elective offerings.

A PROPOSED CURRICULUM

The following secondary school curriculum is proposed as an answer to criticisms that the high school is aimless and that it fails to meet the needs of this new day. The emphasis here is on the cultural and personal development of the student. Twelve required subjects are listed to build the foundation, and four units of specialization will carry the student along toward his specialization status.

The curriculum proposed here would answer most of the criticisms of the present day high school offerings. It would not be "aimless" because this new curriculum is pointed toward certain very definite goals and objectives. It does not neglect "fundamentals" because full attention is given to basic knowledges and skills needed in everyday living. The proposed curriculum is not "impractical" for it provides an opportunity not only for the

development of the personality and of character of the high school student but points toward vocational outlook as well. And, in addition, there is full provision for a wide background of general education which is coming back into focus these days after a period of high specialization in secondary school training.

A. Fundamentals—Required of All	**Twelve Units**
I. Communication Arts	Four Units
Freshman—Oral and Written English	One Unit
Sophomore—Oral and Written English	One Unit
Junior—Oral and Written English	One Unit
Senior—Oral and Written English	One Unit
II. Human Relations Arts	Four Units
Freshman—Knowledge of Self (Vocations)	One Unit
Sophomore—Knowledge of Self (Health)	One Unit
Junior—Knowledge of Others (U. S. History and Government)	One Unit
Senior—Knowledge of Others (Economics and Sociology)	One Unit
III. General Education—Academic	Three Units
Freshman—World Civilization	One Unit
Sophomore—General Mathematics	One Unit
Junior—General Science	One Unit
IV. Culture and Appreciation Arts	One Unit
One-third Unit each year in Art (Freshman), Music (Sophomore), and Literature (Junior).	
B. Specializations	**Four Units**
I. Vocational—Industrial Arts, Home Making, Agriculture, Commercial.	
II. Advanced Academic—Advanced Mathematics, Advanced Science, Foreign Language.	
III. Advanced Appreciation—Advanced Music, Advanced Art, Advanced Literature.	

This suggested curriculum is not radically different. It only proposes new stresses where present programs appear to have weaknesses. Note the emphasis on Oral English in the communication arts—a much needed change in these times when so much hinges on ability to express oneself. Note the schedule of human relation arts—which some say is the key to a peaceful world. Note the three directional specialization layout, which gives every student an opportunity to carry through on his major interest. All students would receive a cultural foundation in art, music, and literature which is being sidetracked in the present secondary school program.

Fits Small High School

Most high schools, both large and small, could handle this type of curriculum. A staff of six or seven instructors could cover the proposed offerings somewhat as follows:

1. Oral and Written English plus Literature
2. Human Relations plus World Civilization
3. Mathematics and Science
4. Industrial Arts and Agriculture
5. Commercial
6. Home Making and Art
7. Foreign Language and Music.

Holding Power over Students

Someone will say that this type of program would fail to hold some students in high school because too much of the curriculum is required. There probably would be losses. There are far too many drop-outs under the present set-up. It would be necessary to sell this new kind of offering to every student—to convince him that it fits the needs of a new day; that four years of oral and written English have real value; that the human relations program is highly practical. Furthermore, there is room in each year for a choice of subject specialization.

The key to the success of this new curriculum would be careful and efficient guidance and counseling. If the four units of specialization could be properly chosen to fit the capabilities and interests of the student, a well rounded high school graduate could be guaranteed—one who would be ready for either college entrance or job status.

Staff Morale

The principal of a teachers college training school suggests that administrators take the following five steps to higher staff morale:

Staff members want to know they are making a contribution.
Staff members want to know reasons.
Teachers want sympathetic understanding.
Staff members want help necessary to get the results expected.
Staff members want honesty in their administrators.

—*School Executive*, September 1954.

Measuring the Quality of Social Acceptability in Some Ninth Grade Core and Noncore Classes

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ONE of the important aims of education is to help students to adjust successfully to their peers. As the teacher begins to emphasize the development of social relationships such as the improvement of the quality of inter-personal relationships as an educational goal, he realizes that there should be evaluation to ascertain if the required modifications in pupil behavior have occurred.

For example, it has been assumed by some teachers that because of the nature of classroom climate and deformalized curricular emphases of a core program, the quality of peer social acceptability should be at a higher level than that existing in conventional subject-matter noncore classes. In core classes pupil skills in democratic living are developed through practice in the classroom. Working in groups and in committees in solving problems is common practice. Pupil-teacher planning is a significant part of method. Guidance for the pupil is one of the keynotes. Moreover, in the core class the development of personal and social adjustment of the pupils is emphasized. It is with the appraisal of the last curricular objective that this study is concerned.

With respect to evaluation, the teacher is faced with two problems. First, he must develop the means of assessing these assumed changes in pupil behavior. Moreover, the evaluation technique must not only give an adequate assessment of the change in behavior but must be fashioned so that it may be applied economically in the practical school situation.

The purpose of this study is to apply a practical group-test approach for comparing the quality of social acceptance in selected ninth grade core and noncore classes.

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

In order to compare the quality of classroom social acceptability in core and noncore classes sociometric measures were applied to core and noncore student groups toward the end of the first term.

At the end of the second term the same sociometric measure supplied acceptance and rejection indices. Each of the two groups was compared in terms of inter-pupil acceptance and rejection. It was assumed that the group which exhibited greater gains in the level of inter-pupil acceptance with corresponding decreases in rejection indices would be the group adjudged to have come closer to the goal of improved human relations in a class group as defined in this study.

STUDENT POPULATION

Ninth grade boys of a vocational high school participated in this study. These students were drawn from two core classes and four noncore classes. Each core class was taught an integrated social studies and English curriculum by the same teacher for one year. The time block for the social studies-English core was two periods. The core curriculum with the integration of two or more subjects all taught under the direction of one teacher differs from the separate subject matter organization and a separate teacher for each subject in the regular classes. The noncore students followed the regular departmentalized program for one year.

The registers of each participating class ranged from 24 to 32. The class median IQ's ranged from 91 to 104, with a median of about 97. The median chronological age was 14 years and 3 months at the start of the school year.

APPLICATION OF THE OHIO SCALE

Because of limitations of time and personnel, preliminary exploration in this area was restricted to the application of the Revised Ohio Social Acceptance Scale. This scale calls upon each student to rate each of his classmates on a scale from one to five. The student is given a sheet on which appear the names of every student in his class. He is requested to rate each classmate in accordance with the following code: (1) "Very very best friends," (2) "Good friends," (3) "Not friends but okay," (4) "Don't know them," (5) "Not okay to you."

The Ohio Social Acceptance Scale was administered to the core and noncore classes on January 1953 and once again in June 1953. Thus for each class there were two determinations of the level of class social acceptability. The next step was to compare the amount of growth in class social acceptability achieved by core and noncore classes.

Measures of two aspects of social acceptance were secured—a rejection score and an acceptance score. The rejection score of a student was obtained by counting the number of classmates whom he rated as 4 or 5. However, in view of differences in the number of students in each class, the number of classmates that a student rated 4 or 5 was divided by the number of students in his class. The latter quotient, the rejection score for each student, was the per cent of students in his class that he rated 4 or 5. The acceptance score for each student was obtained by counting the number of classmates he rated 1 and 2. Again, this number was divided by the number of students in his class. The latter quotient, the acceptance score, was the per cent of students he rated 1 and 2. Ratings of "3" were considered neutral and were not directly involved in the current method of scoring.

In view of the fact that the Ohio Scale was given in January 1953 and readministered in June 1953, only students whose test records were available at the two testing periods were selected for analysis. Complete data were available for 38 core students and 78 noncore students.

RESULTS

The first step in the analysis of the results was to compare the reduction in mean rejection score for the core group with that for the noncore group. It was assumed that a decrease in mean rejection score was indicative of improved interpupil relationships in the class. The mean rejection scores for the January testing and June retesting were obtained for the two core classes combined and for the four noncore classes combined. For each of the two groups compared, the significance of the mean difference in rejection score between the initial and final administration of the Ohio Social Acceptance Scale was determined.

The change in mean rejection score for the core group is indicated in Table 1.

TABLE 1. The Significance of the Mean Difference in Rejection Score on the Ohio Social Acceptance Test Given to the Core Ninth Grade Group

Time of Testing	*N*	*Mean*	*Dif.*	*SE Dif.*	*t*	*Level of Significance*
Jan. 1953	38	18.16	7.06	2.27	3.11	.01
June 1953	38	11.10				

As the results in Table 1 indicate the mean rejection score at the January testing was 18.16. By June 1953, the mean rejection score for the core group was reduced to 11.10. For the core group, there was a mean decrease in rejection score of 7.06. The latter

difference was highly statistically reliable. In computing the standard error of the mean difference, the correlation between the initial and final rejection scores was utilized in the appropriate formula for correlated means.[1] This was done because identical students were involved in the initial and final testings. The correlation between the initial and final rejection scores for this group of core students is .65.

The results on the initial and final administration of the Ohio Social Acceptance Scale for the noncore student group are shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2. The Significance of the Mean Difference in Rejection Score on the Ohio Social Acceptance Scale Given to the Noncore Ninth Grade Group

Time of Testing	*N*	*Mean*	*Dif.*	*SE Dif.*	*t*	*Level of Significance*
Jan. 1953	78	10.35	11.80	2.05	5.76	.001
June 1953	78	22.15				

As indicated in Table 2, the noncore student group secured a mean rejection score of 10.35 on the initial test. On the final test the mean rejection score increased to 22.15. The mean difference in rejection score, 11.80, was highly statistically reliable.

Similar analyses of the acceptance scores of the core and noncore groups were undertaken. The results of the initial and final administration of the Ohio scale for the core student group are shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3. The Significance of the Mean Difference in Acceptance Score on the Ohio Social Acceptance Scale Given to the Noncore Ninth Grade Group

Time of Testing	*N*	*Mean*	*Dif.*	*SE Dif.*	*t*	*Level of Significance*
Jan. 1953	38	36.58	9.79	3.76	2.60	.02
June 1953	38	46.37				

As indicated in Table 3, the mean social acceptance score for the core group in January 1953 is 36.58. In June 1953, the mean acceptance score was 46.37. There was a gain of about 9.79 between the two testing periods. This mean difference was statistically reliable at the two per cent level of significance.

Table 4 presents the results for the noncore group.

TABLE 4. The Significance of the Mean Difference in Acceptance Score on the Ohio Social Acceptance Scale Given to the Core Ninth Grade Group

Time of Testing	*N*	*Mean*	*Dif.*	*SE Dif.*	*t*	*Level of Significance*
Jan. 1953	78	43.96	9.42	2.21	4.26	.001
June 1953	78	34.54				

[1] *Henry E. Garrett, Statistics in Psychology and Education.* New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1953, p. 226.

For the noncore group, the mean acceptance score in January 1953 was 43.96 but in June 1953 the corresponding mean was 34.54. The decrease in acceptance score, 9.42, was highly statistically reliable.

SUMMARY

For the period studied, the core group showed a significant reduction in mean rejection score with a corresponding significant gain in mean acceptance scores. On the other hand, over the same period of time the noncore group showed a significant increase in mean rejection score and a corresponding decrease in mean acceptance score.

Additional research which involves other core and noncore classes in other schools is required in this important area. For example, follow-up studies should be made of core and noncore students to ascertain if they maintain their respective comparative position in subsequent terms. Moreover, other approaches for the appraisal of human relationships in a class group should be utilized to increase the adequacy of the appraisal.

The quality of inter-pupil social acceptance, a major attribute of good human relationships, is admittedly a difficult intangible to assess. The current group-test approach has shown some promise and practicality so that it may be applied to other groups to determine how consistently and effectively the instrument operates in a variety of school situations.

A Comparison of the Characteristics of Positions in Science Teaching With the Characteristics of Teachers Being Trained

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WITHIN the past few years the roles of science and the scientist in our environment have been brought forcibly to the attention of both lay and professional groups. The national economy depends more and more on the application of technology. Success in military ventures depends more and more on the discoveries of scientists rather than on the battlefield strategy of generals. Further, the daily routines of the "average man" depend increasingly on the application of scientific principles and the use of scientific discoveries. In light of these facts it would seem that the educational institutions at various levels would be training persons to meet the obligations implicit in the areas just described. However, even a casual analysis points to an appalling dearth of scientific training in the United States.

First, our national economy demands about 100,000 scientists, engineers, and technicians each year. About half that number are being produced. Many of the major industries are several years behind in filling their quotas for such personnel. Secondly, the program for training teachers to teach high school science—teachers who start these people on the way to scientific careers—is inadequate. About five thousand science teachers are being produced each year to meet a need for seven thousand—a need which will soon grow to ten thousand. Finally, the lack of scientific thinking on the part of the layman is incredible. One needs to point only to the facts that in 1953 (1) over four times as much money was spent on patent medicines in the United States and Canada as on prescriptions, and (2) nearly one hundred million dollars were spent on products containing the "deodorant," chlorophyll.

Obviously, there is no single answer or reason for the inadequacies just described. Yet a number of studies undertaken within

the last few years (see bibliography) point unequivocally to the fact that not only are science teachers in short supply in many states, but that their training is woefully unsuited to the positions they are expected to fill.

What Are the Different Types of Positions in Science Teaching?

At many science meetings one hears references to the "teacher of physics," the "teacher of chemistry," or the "teacher of biology." Actually such titles are misnomers. The vast proportion of these teachers are *teachers of science*. Few of them, at least over a period of years, teach one specialized science only.

The research evidence shows that ninety percent of the teachers whose major assignment is to teach science, teach subject combinations in these areas: (1) Physical education, biology and general science; (2) Chemistry, physics and mathematics; (3) Chemistry, physics and biology; (4) Biology and general science. The remaining ten percent teach varied combinations of sciences as well as courses in other fields of subject matter.

This picture of science teaching positions, however, tends to be more optimistic than a searching analysis will show. A realistic view can be obtained when one realizes that no matter how small or how large the high school, about half of them have two science teachers, and the other half, three or more. Yet, more than half of all teachers who teach science, teach only one class in science. Also in many of these schools, particularly the smaller ones, all science teachers teach courses other than science. This would tend to lead to two assumptions: (1) teachers of science are not trained to teach all the sciences, and (2) science courses are "farmed out" frequently to teachers of other subjects, many of whom may be trained in a single area of science. A survey of the subject-matter backgrounds and competencies of science teachers tends to substantiate the assumptions just made.

The Subject-Matter Backgrounds and Competencies of Teachers of Science

The various studies concerning the subject-matter backgrounds and competencies of science teachers indicate that science teachers are, as a whole, an unprofessional group. For some reason or other, judging by current practices, a knowledge of a science area seems to be no criterion for an assignment to teach that area. The following statements seem to be consistent with that premise:

1. *Anybody can teach general science!* A survey of the various studies indicates that the assignment of teachers to teach general science is apparently governed by chance. Although general science involves the integration of biology, astronomy, earth science, health, chemistry, meteorology, physics, and conservation, the persons who teach the course may be highly specialized in one area to the exclusion of training in the others, or may have little or no science in their backgrounds. Thus, the course in general science is likely to be a watered-down version of a specialized science such as physics or chemistry, or a pseudo-science taught by a person who keeps one day ahead of the students. These types of courses in general science are not likely to stimulate students to take courses in science in the later years of high school.

2. *Biology is best taught by majors in physical education and by coaches!* In many states persons majoring or minoring in physical education are expected to have minors in biology. As a result, about two-thirds of the classes in biology in these states are taught by persons whose major interest is not in the area of biology. Further, the major and minor sequences taken by many of such teachers emphasize courses in public health, community hygiene, and anatomy, and lack foundational courses in botany, zoology and ecology. The probable results are self-evident.

3. *Physics is best taught by teachers who have had no physics!* In several states studied, about one half of the teachers of physics had no background in physics other than the introductory course or an incidental survey course. Since the breadth and scope of modern physics is expanding steadily it would seem that the training of a teacher to teach physics should be both intensive and extensive in the area of physics. Further, since courses in chemistry include much material from the area of physics, and seventy percent of the principles ordinarily taught in general science are related to the area of physics, it would seem that courses in physics would constitute at least part of the background of a teacher of any area of science. Yet in 1953 in one midwestern state not one student from any of the teachers colleges or universities who graduated with a major or minor in physics entered the teaching profession. This fact certainly would seem to be related to the fact that each year only 32 out of every 1000 high school students take physics.

4. *Chemistry teachers need more extensive training than physics teachers!* Fortunately, chemistry teachers seem to be better trained than physics teachers. It is heartening to note that about eighty

percent of such teachers have had courses in chemistry! Hence, as a whole this group of teachers seems to be better trained than teachers of the other sciences. Yet the twenty percent not adequately trained should be enough to suppress unbridled optimism.

5 *Teachers are capable of teaching "broad field" courses in science without being trained to teach them!* More than two-thirds of all high school students take general science and general biology. Fewer than thirty percent take chemistry and fewer than fifteen take physics. Yet the college training of science teachers is generally in specialized areas, rather than in broad field courses that illustrate the types of integration they will be expected to teach later. This may be one of the major indictments of the total training program of science teachers. However, there are possible ways for correcting the deficiencies described above and they are here recommended.

WHAT PROGRAMS OF TRAINING ARE DESIRABLE FOR SCIENCE TEACHERS?

One would be foolhardy indeed to suggest that there is a *best* program for training science teachers. Actually the teaching situation in which a person finds himself is probably the best criterion for an effective program. Consequently, since one person may change schools and hence teach different subject combinations, the suggestions here will be somewhat general and will delimit areas of training rather than to designate courses that may be desirable for a specific teaching situation.

It must be realized that the program of science courses cannot absorb all the course hours beyond the usual requirements for general and professional education. Ordinarily about seventy semester hours are left for subject-matter specialization. Of these it is unlikely that more than fifty can be used for science. However, within these limits it would seem that an adequate science background can be obtained.

For a teacher who is expected to teach *all* the science, the following general suggestions are made:

Physical Science—a group major of 30 hours to include:

a. A survey course that will include elements of chemistry, physics, earth science and astronomy, and will serve as an introductory course for later study of chemistry and physics.
b. Chemistry to include advanced inorganic and physical chemistry and organic chemistry.
c. Physics to include the traditional areas of mechanics, heat, sound, light and electricity.

d. A course in "Modern Problems in Physical Science" in which modern discoveries and research in physical science are related to the application of physical science principles.
e. A short course in descriptive astronomy.

Biological Sciences—a group minor of 20 hours to include:

a. A survey course in biological science.
b. Courses in ecology, heredity, evolution, and community health.
c. A course in human geography.
d. A survey course in earth science emphasizing the changes taking place in the air, water, and on the surface of the solid earth.

Somewhere in this fifty hours should be included a course in the teaching of high-school science emphasizing the general education courses that most students take.

Obviously the methods of instruction and the use of inductive laboratory procedures will be of great import in the effectiveness of the above course pattern. However they will not be discussed here.

For teachers of chemistry, physics, and mathematics, the same group major in the physical sciences is suggested, together with a minor in mathematics. However since such teachers are also likely to teach general science it would seem that they should also be expected to take the survey courses in biological science and in earth science already described.

For the biology-general science teacher who also teaches physical education or some other subject area, it would seem that at least the group minor in biological science together with courses in human geography, economic botany, and the survey courses in physical science and in earth science should be required.

Obviously, none of these combinations will produce a science teacher schooled in all the science he will need to know. However, the programs of training described herein are more likely to be suitable than those that many science teachers have taken. At least they do provide a breadth of training that covers the areas they are likely to teach.

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Driver Education

The following over-all statistics summarize the programs of driver education for the 9870 high schools replying to a questionnaire mailed in the spring of 1953 to nearly 24,000 public high schools:

47 per cent of the schools replying offered some kind of driver education program.

82 per cent of these programs included both classroom instruction and practice driving.

53 per cent of the programs reported were in high schools in rural areas.

35 per cent of the programs reported were in the middle states.

53 per cent of the programs were offered by regular four-year high schools.

41 per cent of the programs were given in schools enrolling fewer than 300 students.

—*N.E.A. Research Bulletin,* April 1954

Extraclass Activities, 1950-53*

ELLSWORTH TOMPKINS AND WALTER H. GAUMNITZ
U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

Allen, James E., Jr. "Relationship of Extra-Curricular Activities to Salaries," *Harvard Educational Review,* 22:141-149, Spring 1952.

Provides a comprehensive discussion of issues involved in the relation between sponsorship of extraclass activities and teachers' salaries. Describes the situation in New York City in 1950 when teacher groups discontinued sponsorship of activities for 13 months and the decision of the New York State Commissioner of Education after legal appeal had been taken to him.

Bailard, Virginia. "High School Extracurriculum Activities Are Worth the Effort," *Journal of the National Education Association,* 41:560-561, December 1952.

Discusses the importance of pupil activities to morale from the viewpoint of students, sponsors, and values inherent in group work.

Bateman, R. M. "Effect of Work Experience on High School Extracurriculum Activities," *Educational Administration and Supervision,* 36:265-274, May 1950.

Statistics from three Illinois high schools indicate how extracurriculum activities can be made a part of the regular school program, so that students who are employed during out-of-school hours may have opportunities to participate in activities.

Benerd, Gladys. "Extra Pay Versus No Extra Pay," *School Activities,* 24:97-99, November 1952. Biblio.

Summarizes recent literature on the topic of extra compensation for teachers sponsoring certain pupil activity groups. Also gives the author's experience in amount of time needed for sponsorship duties.

———. "How Do Pupils Benefit by Participation in the Co-curricular Program?" *Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 37:103-111, March 1953. Biblio.

A review of professional literature and research studies touching on the needs of adolescent youth and the outcomes of pupil participation in well-guided, well-organized cocurricular program.

* To be continued in the November issue.

Bennie, W. A. "Activities Program as a Public Relations Medium," *School Activities,* 22:22, September 1950.

States why a program of cocurricular activities is essential and indicates how it can cooperate with various community agencies. Cites three principles by which teacher-sponsors can coordinate activity program and public relations.

Berry, Chester A. "Activities and Citizenship." In *Education for Democratic Citizenship,* 22nd Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington: The Council, 1951. Pp. 134-141.

An appraisal of the need for pupil activities in education for civic behavior and personal adjustment. A reasoned analysis of factors responsible for the present lag between what we know and what we do. Cites the opportunity for self-discipline in activities.

Blair, Lois C. "Providing Extraclass Experiences for Student Teachers," *Journal of Teacher Education,* 2:53-59, March 1951.

A teacher of English discusses the need for enriching student-teaching experience through extraclass activities.

Block, D. A. "Homeroom Organization in the Junior High School," *Montana Education,* 27:9-10, February 1951.

Shows how full participation in extraclass activities helps to develop good pupil-teacher relationships and assists pupils in realizing more fully their individual talents.

Bragg, Louis A. "Need an Activity Period?" *School Activities,* 23:283-284, May 1952.

Examination of the daily class schedules of 31 Wyoming high schools, all members of the North Central Association, suggests that an activity period is a means for adequate coordination of homeroom, club, assembly, and guidance programs.

Buchwald, Aaron H. "Extra-Curricular Financial Activities," *Journal of Business Education,* 27:378-380, May 1952. Biblio.

Analyzes professional and financial literature having implications for management of activity funds. Recommends specific criteria to evaluate the accounting and auditing of pupil activity moneys.

Buys, William E.; Hibbs, R. P.; Baird, A. C.; and Mills, Glen E. "Extracurricular Activities." *In* Public Address in the Secondary School. *Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Section B, 36:89-131, May 1952.

Expounds the role of Discussion, Debate, Original Orations, and Extemporaneous Speaking in the program of high school activities.

Carman, C. C. "Publicity for the Program," *School Activities,* 22:282-285, May 1951.

Describes ways and means of publicizing activities to pupils, faculty, parents, and the general public.

Commission on Educational Reconstruction, American Federation of Teachers. "Extracurricular Activities and the Teacher," *American Teacher,* 36:22-23, October 1951.

Presents five considerations basic to the development of extracurricular activities. Argues that adequate compensation be paid teachers for their sponsorship of activities outside of the regular classroom day.

Davis, Rosemary. "Athletic Opportunities for All Students," *Illinois Education,* 39:98-99, November 1950.

A teacher of physical education points out that too much importance is placed upon interscholastic competition for a skilled few. Suggests that intramural athletics are as important as interscholastic competition.

Dolan, Francis H. "Hidden Student Costs," *Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 36:139-142, October, 1952.

Summarizes data resulting from a study of hidden educational costs in La Salle-Peru Township H. S. (Ill.) Average hidden costs tend to increase steadily from grade 9 through 12. Amounts estimated for classes: freshmen, $72.75; sophomores, $90.75; juniors, $164.45; seniors, $189.50 annually.

Douglass, Harl R. Chapter 18, "Cocurricular Educational Experience." In *Secondary Education for Life Adjustment of American Youth.* New York, Ronald Press, 1952. Pp. 425-448.

Surveys the development of the cocurriculum in secondary schools and describes salient features of present practice in organizing and evaluating pupil activities, student council, homeroom, and other cocurricular experiences.

Ehnes, C. W. "Central Treasury for All Activities," *Clearing House,* 26:30-34, September 1951.

Explains reasons why a central treasury for all student organizations in the school is advisable. Outlines organization and procedures used in Brookline (Mass.) High School.

Essex, M. W. and staff. "The Community Sees a Parade of Activities," *Nation's Schools,* 48:52, August 1951.

Describes how an activities director in an Ohio secondary school plans and stages an "Activities Parade" to acquaint school assemblies, junior high school pupils, and parent-teacher groups with the purpose and particulars of extraclass activities.

Estrin, Herman A. "Making a Homeroom More Effective," *School Activities,* 21:281-287, May 1950.

Asks and answers questions on homeroom effectiveness in terms of organization, programming, and evaluation. Describes the relation of the homeroom to curriculum and extracurriculum activities, and illustrates how this relationship may be appraised.

Finch, H. R. "Motion-picture Club: An Activity for the Classroom," *English Journal,* 40:105-106, February 1951.

A student club learns how to evaluate various motion pictures and sponsors the showing of selected films in the school assembly.

Fleischer, Robert D. "Secret Societies: An Administrative Problem," *Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 36:131-133, October 1952. Biblio.

States that the undemocratic nature of secret societies undermines the purpose of public education. Reviews the findings of studies and reports by an annotation of recent professional literature.

French, Will; Hull, J. Dan; and Dodds, B. L. Chapter 13, "The Place of School Activities and Student Organizations"; Chapter 14, "Organization and Administration of Types of School Activities"; Chapter 15, "Conventional Schedule Making." In *American High School Administration.* New York, Rinehart and Company, 1951. Pp. 267-321.

Chapters 13, 14 and 15 present salient issues, concepts, and forwardlooking practices on (a) the place, function, and purpose of school activities and student organizations, (b) the organization and administration of types of school activities, (c) the evaluation of school activities, and (d) problems connected with scheduling and financing activities.

Freudenberger, John. "An Intramural Success Story," *School Activities,* 21:287, May 1950.

Describes how twenty-four homerooms are organized to achieve full participation in one high school's intramural athletic program.

Gastineau, Jerry and Martin, George B. "The Assignment of Extra-Curricular Advisors," *Educational Administration and Supervision,* 38:42-47, January 1952.

Describes a survey form in which teachers select sponsorship duties and pupils help to determine what type of activities they want. Emphasizes the necessity for avoiding purely administrative assignment of teachers to activity sponsorships.

Gaumnitz, Walter H.; Tompkins, Ellsworth; and Pelley, Albert L. *Selected References to High School Schedule Making.* Circular No. 350, July 1952. Office of Education. Washington, D. C.

Contains information dealing with procedures for scheduling high school classes and activities. The problem of scheduling is often as important for activities as it is for regular classes.

Gianferante, Mary G. "A Study of the Extent of Participation in the Extracurricular Activities by High School Students and the Relation of Such Activities to Personal Adjustment." Boston University Thesis (MA 1951).

A comprehensive survey of extraclass activities in a junior high school in Massachusetts. Findings indicate a relationship between a pupil's personality adjustment to school and his participation in extraclass activities.

Graber, Ralph E. "How Extensive an Activity Program in the Junior High School?" *Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 36:250-256, March 1952.

Emphasizes the importance of an adequate program of extracurricular activities for life adjustment education. Lists recommendations as a result of survey on school drop-outs. Describes a study of the activity program made in Lawrence Junior High School (Kans.).

Green, Raymond A. "Secret Societies," *Journal of the National Education Association,* 39:388-389, May 1950.

Presents the case against high school fraternities and sororities. Describes how they divide pupils' loyalties to the school, develop injurious attitudes, and violate public school ideals. Names several other sources of information on secret societies.

Hall, Charles A. "Coeducational Recreational Activities," *School Activities,* 24:162-165, January 1953.

Cites the tremendous growth of intramural activities in high schools and suggests how they may be improved and refined, both on the competitive and non-competitive basis, for boys and girls participating together.

Halley, Robert R. "Criteria of a Good Student-Body Budget," *Clearing House,* 26:28-29, September 1951.

Outlines six practical characteristics of a good student-body budget, based on experiences as budget adviser to the student council of Avenal (Col.) High School.

Hance, Kenneth G. "Newer Types of Extracurricular Activities in Public Speaking," *Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 36:132-157, May 1952.

Reviews activities designed by school and college educators to provide students a wide variety of experiences in inquiry and advocacy. Newer debate activities attempt to motivate training of projective reasoning and investigative thinking. Proposes several modifications of traditional educational debate and other contests in public speaking.

Hand, Harold C. "Do School Costs Drive Out the Youth of the Poor?" *Progressive Education,* 28:89-93, January 1951.

Reports findings of a study of student participation in more than 70 secondary schools in Illinois. The median costs associated with participation in these high schools are so high as to prevent approximately one-third of the pupils from taking part in "fun and status" activities of their respective high schools.

Harris, Raymond P. "A Plan for Diagramming Activity Participation," *School Activities,* 24:165-166, January 1953.

Suggests a means for graphic portrayal of participation in extraclass activities, using sociometric symbols.

Hearn, Arthur C. "Evaluating the School Activity Program," *School Activities,* 23:179-180, February 1952.

Devoted chiefly to specific techniques which may be utilized in the evaluation of school activity program, by checklist, opinion poll, and behavioral changes of pupils.

———. "Increasing Interest and Participation in Activities," *School Activities,* 22:212-213, March 1951.

Describes four specific suggestions related to ways and means whereby the apathy on the part of large number of students toward activities may be overcome. Stresses full participation of both students and faculty.

Helble, Hubert H. "Extraclass Activities," *Journal* of the National Education Association, 41:75-77, February 1952.

Tells how a comprehensive activities program can help meet four fundamental student needs: to be noticed, to be an important member of the team, to excel, and to receive merited commendation. Describes how one activity group, the operetta stage crew, renders service to many other school clubs.

Henry, Maynard B. "A Point System Is Worthwhile," *School Activities,* 21:256-257, April 1950.

The point system in a Maryland high school helps to achieve increased pupil participation in extraclass activities. Lists six ways by which a school can stimulate interest in pupil activities.

Johnston, E. G. "Competition and School Activities," *North Central Association Quarterly,* 25:234-237, October 1950.

The words cocurricular, intracurricular, semicurricular, collateral, have not fully been accepted as a replacement for "extracurricular." But there is increasing acceptance of the point of view that extracurricular activities are merely less formally organized phases of the total curriculum.

Johnston, E. G. and Faunce, R. C. *Student Activities in Secondary Schools.* New York, Ronald Press, 1952. 369 pp. Biblio.

The most recent new book in the field. In addition to describing particular activities, the authors analyze the educational concepts underlying an effective program of activities, including a chapter on school camping.

Jones, Norman R. D. "Science Fairs—Science Education in the Community," *Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 37:165-169, January 1953.

Describes two kinds of activities to broaden the scope of science education: a science fair, a project involving the entire community; summer field trips and camping experiences centered around points of scientific interest in the community.

Jung, Christian W. and Fox, William H. "Extracurricular Activities in Indiana High Schools." Bloomington, Indiana University, *Bulletin of the School of Education.* Published by Division of Research and Field Services, May 1952. 84 pp.

Presents a comprehensive survey of extracurricular activities in 442 Indiana high schools. Data were obtained by an inquiry form sent to all high schools in Indiana. Findings are reported in tabular form and analyzed in text. A basic study of status and practice having implications for appraisal of extraclass activities—objectives, management program—in other States.

Keller, Ruth M. "Group Sponsors," *School Activities,* 23:89, November 1951.

Discusses the characteristics of an effective sponsor and considers the administrative responsibility for developing a good corps of sponsors. Describes the four usual ways by which a sponsor is selected: 1) appointment by principal, 2) self-appointment, 3) volunteer appointment at the request of pupils, and 4) election by a teacher committee.

Klopf, Gordon L. *Planning Student Activities in the High School.* Student Activities Counselor, University of Wisconsin. Wisconsin High School Forensic Association, 1327 University Avenue, Madison 5, Wisconsin. 93 pp. Mimeo.

A handbook designed to assist principals, sponsors, and teachers to plan, schedule, and evaluate a balanced program of pupil activities in Wisconsin high schools.

In Other Periodicals

Norfolk's organized program of orientation activities for new teachers is described by W. J. B. Truett in the *School Executive* for August. Among the techniques used are the following: a packet of explanatory materials describing the school system is given each new teacher; a luncheon is given by the school system and receptions honoring new teachers are given by the P.T.A. and the Norfolk Woman's Club; a tour of the city and harbor is made; conferences are held with experienced teachers; occasionally free season tickets to forum lectures and symphony concerts are distributed.

A community study of lay participation in school affairs reported by sociologist John N. Foskett in the August *Nation's Schools* reveals that the most important factors leading to participation are income, education, occupation, and interest in other community affairs. Length of residence in community, parenthood status, and degree of satisfaction in schools were not related to participation.

"Social participation in the form of voting in school elections may be regarded as one element in role behavior. For some persons it is a part of the 'way of life,' while for others it is not. Whether voting is a constituent element in a given position depends upon the nature of the position itself. Thus persons in the upper education, income, and 25 to 50 year old categories vote more frequently because the role of persons in such positions calls for this kind of activity."

Two independent validation studies of the Glueck Social Prediction Table reported by Selma J. Glick in *Exceptional Children*, May 1954, indicate that it was accurate in rating nine out of ten boys either as non-delinquent or as potential delinquents. Although pointing out that much additional research needs to be done before its validity can be definitely established, she says, "If further testing of this predictive device yields similar findings, the nation's potentially delinquent population may be spotted while still learning their ABC's." The five major factors in the prediction table devised for boys are discipline of boy by the father, supervision of the boy by the mother, affection of the father

for the boy, affection of the mother for the boy, and cohesiveness of the family.

One of the interesting articles in the Aviation Education number of *Education* (June) is a report of Nebraska's air age education program by its director, C. E. Elmlinger. Beginning in 1940 when the Department of Aeronautics helped the Department of Public Instruction establish aviation courses by supplying free textbooks to high schools, the program has developed into a going concern known as the Nebraska Air Age Education Division, under the supervision of the Department of Educational Research, Teachers College, University of Nebraska. The division is presently "responsible for a summer workshop program, the development and dissimination of materials, regional and local clinics, the maintenance of an Air Center, and cooperation with agencies promoting Air Age Educational programs at the national level."

The June number of the *Baltimore Bulletin of Education* is given over to a report on the superior child by the Baltimore school board. The application of several criteria for selecting the superior child or youth has resulted in selecting for special treatment somewhere around fifteen or twenty per cent of the Baltimore school population.

A program of acceleration in two junior high schools makes it possible to do three years' work in two; and, in four senior high schools, to do five years' work in four, thus receiving advanced standing in college. The report indicated that the present method was satisfactory—"one in which the balance between normal classes, segregation of the brighter children in special groups or schools, and the opportunity for acceleration are all in proper proportion."

Audio-Visual Materials and Techniques

KENNETH M. McINTYRE
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SOME READING YOU MAY ENJOY

Communication: From Cave-Writing to Television, by Julie F. Batchelor. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1953, 166 pp., $2.50. A text designed for high-school students.

Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching, rev. ed., by Edgar Dale. New York: Dryden Press, 1954, 534 pp., $6.25. The revision includes 49 full-color plates, 41 of them part of a new chapter on "Color As an Aid in Teaching." Three other new chapters have been added: "Educational Television"; "Planning, Organizing, and Evaluating"; and "The Humanities." There are more than 400 illustrations (nearly twice the number in the original edition) in a double-column format. New material is included on Home Economics and Business Education. Extensive evaluated lists of specific films, recordings, etc., are presented according to subject matter fields.

Language Teachers Retool for A-V, by Earle S. Randall and S. Edgar Schmidt, published in *Educational Screen,* February, 1954. A description of Purdue University's summer workshop which demonstrates audio-visual methods of teaching language.

PUBLICATIONS THAT MAY BE HELPFUL

The NEA announces a *Guide to Films in Human Relations,* published in cooperation with the Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith. It is a 96-page film bibliography, containing evaluations of nearly 200 films, and edited by EFLA President, Edward Schofield. $1.00. Write to: National Education Association, Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Washington 6, D. C.

AV Instructional Materials Center—No. 3 in the series "Planning Schools for Use of Audio-Visual Materials," DAVI, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D. C. 80 pp., $1.00.

Proceedings of Five Television Workshops, by W. A. Wittich, Director, Bureau of Audio-Visual Instruction, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin, 1952. These meetings were

particularly concerned with the use of television in college and university extension teaching. Price, $2.00.

Education for Self-Understanding, by Arthur T. Jersild, Kenneth Helfant, and others. A Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation Pamphlet, 1953. Available from Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York 27, New York. Price, 85 cents.

FILM NOTES

World Without End, Brandon Films, 39 minutes, black and white. This UNESCO film was previewed in March at the Chicago convention of the Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, and is now available for sale or rental from Brandon Films. Paul Rotha and Basil Wright directed this important story of UNESCO and three other United Nations agencies in action in Mexico and Thailand. Medicine, Agriculture, and Education in the service of human need is the film's theme. Write to: Brandon Films, Inc., 200 W. 57th Street, New York 19, New York.*

American Revolution, EBF, 15 minutes, color. This film explains the strategy, movement of forces and important battles of the Revolutionary War.*

Johnny Appleseed: A Legend of Frontier Life, Coronet, 12½ minutes, black and white and color. This film portrays the story of Johnny Appleseed—a man of peace whose goal in life was to make the world a better place for all living creatures. We see how Johnny's love of God and nature started him on a mission that was to last all his life and make his name known throughout the land.*

A Citizen Participates, Young America, 25 minutes, black and white and color. This film shows how a community and its Kiwanis Club organized to secure a doctor for its people.*

* Write to the University of North Carolina, Bureau of Visual Education, Abernethy Hall, Chapel Hill, North Carolina, for additional booking information.

Book Reviews

J. Anthony Humphreys and Arthur E. Traxler, *Guidance Services.* Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1954, $4.75, 456 pp.

This volume is specifically designed for college or graduate students who are taking the introductory course in guidance work, and for teachers and administrators who are conducting guidance services in their own educational institutions. The authors present basic concepts and procedures for guidance services at all educational levels in elementary and secondary schools and in colleges and universities.

The book is divided into five parts. Part I, Understandings Basic to Guidance Work, presents the guidance point of view, bases for guidance services, principles and aims and a history of guidance services. Part II, Guidance Tools and Techniques, discusses collecting and recording for guidance purposes, counseling and interviewing in guidance work, group techniques in the guidance program, the follow-up in guidance services, and research and evaluation. Part III, Solving Students' Major Problems, treats various principles and techniques of helping students to solve educational problems, to make wise vocational choices, to find jobs, and to solve personal problems. Part IV, Administration of the Guidance Program, deals with problems of organizing and staffing a guidance program. Part V, The Future of Guidance Services, points to past gains and to coming opportunities in this essential educational field.

The style is interesting and clear. There are summaries at the end of the various chapters and also a list of suggested readings. *Guidance Services* should furnish the basis for the introductory guidance program and should also be very helpful for school administrators who are conducting an in-service program for their staffs.

DONALD G. TARBET

Frances Lloyd. *Educating the Sub-Normal Child.* New York: Philosophical Library, 1953, 148 pp.

The author, headmistress of a special elementary school for educational sub-normal children in England, adequately proves her main thesis that children with apparent I.Q.'s between 50 and 70-75 need the controlled non-competitive atmosphere not available to them in a normal school situation. Teachers of normal

children can well benefit from her discussion of the effects of insecurity, emotional retardation, behavior disorders and delinquency on learning readiness and learning abilities.

The discussion on home environment and parental attitudes provides an insight into the additional, and intensified problems with which the educational subnormal pupil is forced to cope. She refutes the common belief that this I.Q. group is predisposed to delinquency, admitting only that they are more easily led and thus more desperately in need of a good social climate. The author's portrayal of her school program, the teaching attitude and the varied methods of approach to creating firstly, a pupil capable of socializing; and secondly, a pupil capable of learning functional speaking, reading, and figuring, provides inspirational reading. Her citations of the general progress made in all the classes and the phenomenal rise in the apparent I.Q. of many individual pupils attest to the validity of the teaching methods and attitudes which she describes.

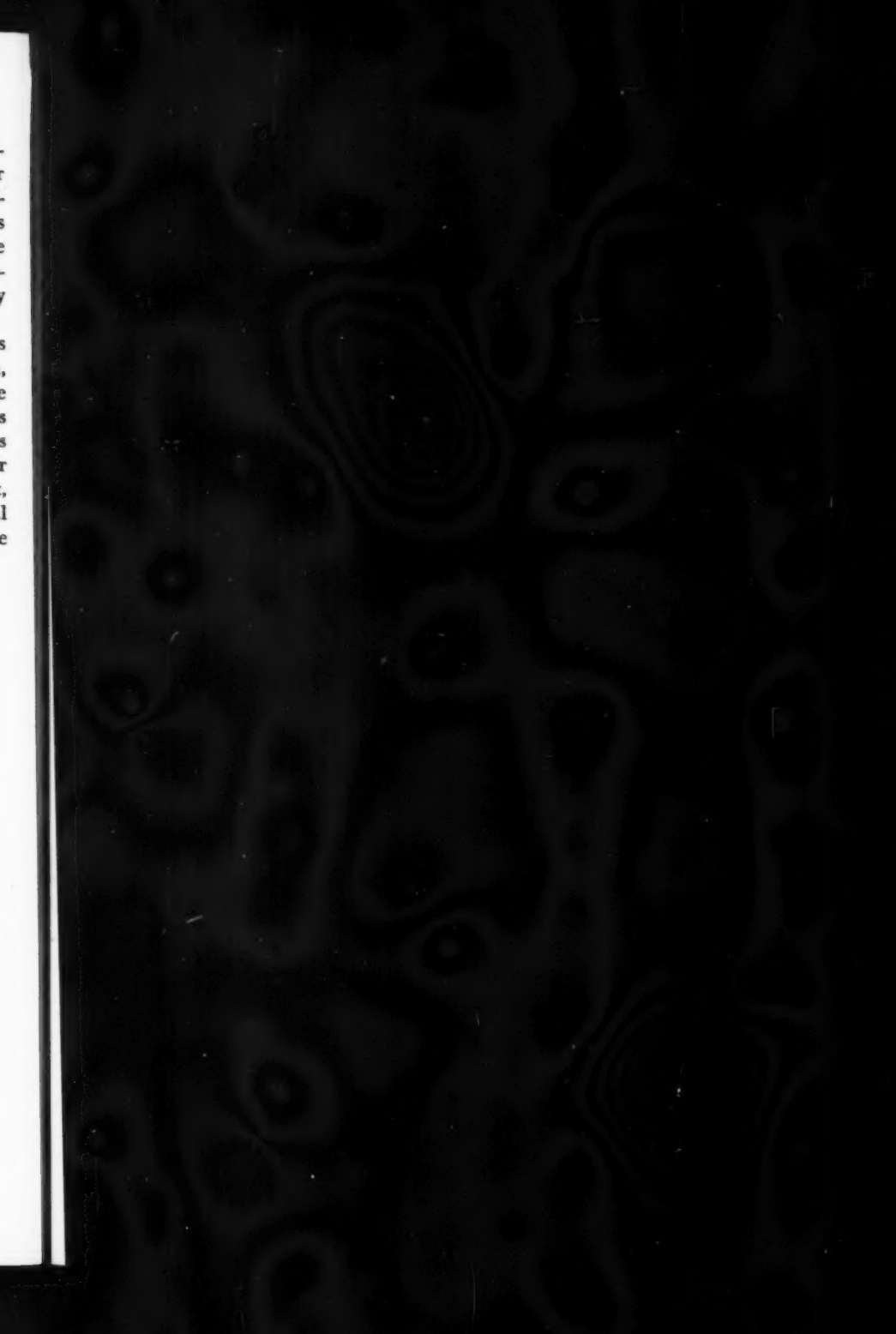
This book presents as strong a case for special educational facilities for the educationally sub-normal children as I have been privileged to read. It can renew the faith of disappointed or guilt-plagued parents and should be of inestimable value to the teacher of mentally retarded children whose enthusiasm has flagged.

EDWARD T. BROWN

Harry S. Ashmore. *The Negro and the Schools.* Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1954.

Hardly had the Supreme Court handed down its decision regarding segregation when this book, based on the research of 40 scholars and written by Harry Ashmore, appeared. The author presents an intelligent and factual description of the Negro and the educational problems associated with him. Much space is given to the difficulties faced by the South because of the fact that this region educates 1/3 of the nation's children with only 1/6 of the nation's wealth. Mr. Ashmore states that "closing the gap" between facilities for whites and Negroes would cost about 6% of the South's current operating cost for the school year of 1953-54. If in addition the gap between urban and rural schools is closed, it would add "about 23% to the region's estimated actual current expenditures. . . ." And if the South by 1962 attempted to equalize facilities for Negroes and whites, urban and rural as well as meet the needs of increasing population and also provide for a "modest

degree of general improvement," its total school bill would be increased "more than 50% over the 1951-52 figure." The author discusses the difficulty involved in meeting such increased expenditure for education in a region which already spends more of its per capita income ("3.3% for the South as against 2.7% for the non-South") for education than other areas. He suggests therefore Federal aid to education as a "far more tangible possibility of speeding the closing of the gap."

Mr. Ashmore can be credited with one of the under-statements of the year perhaps when he states, "The debate over segregation, in the schools or anywhere else, touches deep emotions." While some communities in the South have already seen some instances of conflict since the Supreme Court decision, there have been others in which integration is being carried out before the final order has been handed down, and as Mr. Ashmore so aptly puts it, ". . . those who have had experience with integration—professional educators and laymen alike—have steeled themselves for a far more severe public reaction than they actually encountered."

HAZEL M. LAMBERT